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CONTENTS

Vocational Guidance in Europe: HARRY DEXTER KITSON 645

Teaching Ethics Through Manual Training: HERBERT PATTERSON 650

Insurance Educational Activity: CLYDE J. CROBAUGH 653

Educational Events:

The Annual Report of the United States Commissioner of Education; Thirty-Sixth Annual Convention of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Middle States and Maryland; $10,000 Salaries at Columbia University; Campaign to Repeal Lusk Loyalty Laws in New York; The Jews and Harvard; Russian University Students and the American Relief Administration; The New York State Commission on Ventilation; A Princeton Scientist and the Fundamentalists 656

Educational Notes and News 661

Special Correspondence:

The Public Schools Yesterday, Today and Tomorrow: SARA F. ARCHER 663

Discussion:

What kind of a Cripple Shall I be? ARTHUR E. MORGAN 668

Educational Research and Statistics:

Educational Sociology in Normal Schools: L. O. LANTIS 669

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SCHOOL AND SOCIETY

Volume XVI SATURDAY, DECEMBER 9, 1922 Number 415

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE IN EUROPE[1]

Because absorption in our own problems we Americans are prone to regard them as the only ones of their kind, and to think that in the solution of them we are self-sufficient. If we think of other people at all in connection with them, we make the offhand judgment that these other people are "foreigners," therefore different from us, and therefore uninteresting to us.

This policy of aloofness, so conspicuously displayed by our National Congress, is also permeating our education and social activities. But whatever may be its political value, it is surely unprofitable in other respects; for when one studies the people of other nations, particularly those in Europe, one discovers that they are quite like us, are facing problems much like ours, and are making experiments that we may profitably observe.

Upon visiting Europe, then, one need not be surprised to find that the problem we are interested in—vocational guidance—looms large. And with reason, for the European nations have their share of occupational misfits, European parents have to help their children get started in life-occupations, and European educators have to counsel youths and train them for life-careers. In fact, the nations lately at war sense these problems with perhaps greater keenness than we, for with the demobilization of their large armies they have seen thrown upon society a great host of young men, who, having been fighting since leaving school, had chosen no occupations gained no occupational knowledge, and formed no occupational habits. Again, there are the maimed who have had to make new occupational adjustments. Finally, there are the women who, having discovered their economic possibilities, desire to find places in the working world. These conditions make vocational guidance an especially pressing problem in Europe.

In England, besides the educational and social agencies already described for American readers by Bloomfield,[2] a new psychological service has just developed in the National Institute of Industrial Psychology. Dr. C. S. Myers, director of the Psychological Laboratory at Cambridge University, who has been active in coordinating various interests and obtaining support for the institute, makes the following statement regarding its history and aims:[3]

> For some time the more progressive firms in this country have been interested in the application of psychological and physiological principles to industry and commerce. The Industrial Fatigue Research Board which was established in 1915 has already done much to show the possibilities in this field. Its activities are, however, necessarily confined to broad surveys and investigations of common problems and it was felt by many firms interested that much of the value of its work would be wasted unless assistance could be obtained in the application of the principles to

[1] Address delivered before the National Vocational Guidance Association, Detroit, December 1, 1922.

[2] Meyer Bloomfield, *The School and the Start in Life*, Bulletin No. 4, U. S. Bureau of Education, 1914.

[3] *Journal of Applied Psychology*, September, 1921, v. 290-291.

the special needs of individual firms. This work is obviously beyond the scope of a board supported by public funds and in order to meet this need a National Institute of Industrial Psychology has been formed. This was incorporated under the Companies Act on February 11, 1921, as an association for scientific research. It has the support of a number of well-known business men and in addition has a scientific advisory committee consisting of the heads of psychological, physiological and educational departments of universities throughout the kingdom who are interested in the practical application of the sciences of psychology and physiology. Private individuals have come forward with generous financial support, and in addition the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust is giving substantial help. Where investigations are carried out which are likely to result in an immediate advantage to a firm, fees are charged which cover the salaries of the investigators and include overhead charges of the central body.

The institute is under the direction of Dr. C. S. Myers, M. D., Sc. D., F. R. S., and by arrangement with the Industrial Fatigue Research Board the services of their investigators may be utilized when required to supplement the work of the institute's investigators.

On the industrial side of the institute's activities investigations are now being conducted in factories concerned in the work of presses, box and can making, soldering, chocolate dipping and packing; interesting problems concerning layout, size of material, rest pauses, selection tests, seating accommodation and ventilation have arisen and are being examined.

On the commercial side the formation and trying out of a suitable series of selection tests for the clerical staff of large firms is being undertaken, which promises to prove most useful.

When more detailed information is obtained as a result of these and other investigations, the institute will be in possession of material invaluable for vocational guidance. By cooperation with a number of leading education authorities definite and scientific lines of approach will be formed between the school and business life so that a boy or girl, on leaving school, will have the opportunity of obtaining more exact and scientific guidance than has been possible in the past. In this way it is hoped that much of the waste of national energy which takes place in the intermediate stage by haphazard drift and false starts will be avoided.

The institute is therefore making a more widespread appeal to all those who are interested in this work. That it has been possible to advance so far in a time of such severe financial depression is a hopeful promise of greater activity in brighter times. Meanwhile active propaganda work is being carried on, both amongst employers and employees, and lectures dealing with the subject are being arranged. The results of the work and a full survey of the work of similar character carried out by other similar bodies abroad will be published by the institute in the form of a quarterly journal.

The secretary of the institute is Dr. C. S. Miles and the head offices are at 329 High Holborn, London, W. C. 1

Some of the work done by the Industrial Research Board during the past five years, though not undertaken primarily for purposes of vocational guidance, does, nevertheless, bear upon the problem materially, illustrating a fact that must strike every one who probes into the investigation of industrial problems from any angle; namely, almost every fact discovered about an industrial operation may be utilized in vocational guidance. Thus many of the facts this board discovered about industrial fatigue, and the methods they evolved are turning out to be useful in vocational guidance. Their technique is bringing about the most sincere kind of vocational analysis, and is furnishing valuable information regarding the components of various occupations. In the same way the efficiency studies carried out in many American industrial plants and the more recent efforts toward job analysis may give similar enlightenment in the work of vocational guidance.

Because the psychologist-investigators in England see this truth they are bound to realize favorably upon their efforts. Any one who is interested in examining the reports of the Fatigue Board may secure them from H. M. Stationery Office, Imperial House, Kingsway, London, W. C. 2.[4]

[4] One of special interest is Report No. 12, *Vocational Guidance* (a review of the literature), by B. Muscio, 1921.

In France there are a number of bureaus of vocational guidance. Some, such as those at Lyon, Nantes, Marseilles, and Nancy, are primarily free employment offices working in conjunction with industries and schools. A favorite custom is to send to the parents of each child who quits school a letter after the pattern of this one used by the bureau at Lyon:

Your child is going to leave school; you must help him choose an occupation. This is a grave matter; the entire future of your child may depend upon your action. Accordingly you will do well to reflect seriously and avail yourself of all possible advice.

Do you know what are the physical and intellectual qualities demanded for success in the different callings? Do you know which occupations are so greatly overcrowded that the chances of success therein are very slight, and which ones are so large in opportunity that success is much more certainly assured?

Are you aware of the intellectual and physical aptitudes of your child? Not thoroughly; it is not possible even for the best-intentioned parent to know these things.

The regional placement office gladly offers its facilities in assisting you to place your child upon the right track, in a field that will suit his character, his temperament and his powers, to the end that he may more easily and more surely make his way in the world.

In consultation with scientists accustomed to measure children from various points of view, we shall tell you for what occupations your child is particularly well endowed, and, to a certain extent, for what occupations he does not seem well fitted.

In addition, we shall make every effort to place your child at work in an apprenticeship. And upon this subject we can not dwell too strongly. He is embarking upon his whole future; do not let him become a common laborer exposed to the fluctuations of the economic world. Even if it is necessary at the beginning to sacrifice a little profit for a few months, make of him a trained worker independent and able to earn a good living for himself and his future family.

For all these reasons we urge you to send your son to the Regional Placement Office, 15, Rue du Bas-Port at Lyon, to secure our free vocational counsel, which, we repeat, will not obligate him in any way.[5]

Some of the French bureaus are organized especially for the *mutilés* of war. There is one at Bordeaux in connection with the *Ecole Pratique et normale de Rééducation professionelle des Amputés et Estropiés de Guerre*, under the directorship of Dr. Gourdon. There is another important bureau at Strassbourg fostered by the *Chambres des métiers d'Alsace et de Lorraine*, and by M. Fontègne, *Professeur de l'Ecole Nationale Technique*, author of the latest and most thorough French treatise upon vocational guidance.[6] M. Fontègne is a strong advocate of the use of psychological measurements in vocational guidance.

Psychological methods, supplemented by physiological measurements, are warmly advocated by another French specialist in vocational guidance, M. Jules Amar. In his bulky volume, *Organization Physiologique du Travail*,[7] he recommends the thorough measurement of lung capacity, heart action, muscular tonicity, etc., of workers so that they may be placed in tasks within their physical powers. This author also makes much of the teachings of American efficieney engineers, such as Taylor and Gilbreth, to the effect that waste of human energy in industry should cease, and that work should be organized in accordance with the demands of the human organism.

An American visitor to the industrial

[5] *L'Orientation Professionnelle*, April, 1921, III, No. 21, pg. 39.

[6] *L'Orientation Professionnelle*, Delachaux and Niestle, S. A. Paris, 26 rue Street, Dominique, 1921.

[7] H. Dunod et E. Pinat, Paris, 1917. See English translation, *The physiology of industrial organization and the re-employment of the disabled*, London, The Library Press, Ltd., 1918.

centers of Europe, and especially to the laboratories of industrial research, feels at home immediately because he meets on every hand the well-known American fetish, scientific management, known in France as *le taylorisme*, and in Germany as *Der Taylorismus*. There is a vast bibliography in French consisting of translations and critical expositions of American writings, made chiefly by engineers and economists. Naturally, not all agree with the tenets of the American system, but they find a good deal in it to apply. The seriousness with which they take it is evidenced by the course given at the University of Paris by M. Charles Cestre, upon American methods of industrial management.

A discussion of vocational guidance in France would not be complete without mention of the French periodical, *L'Orientation Professionnelle*, now in its third year.[8] Each number (it is a monthly), is filled with information, as exact as possible, about one or more occupations: engineering, mining, marine service, etc.; and with news concerning the progress of vocational guidance in France and other countries.

In Germany, vocational guidance has been well known under the name *Berufsberatung* since the publication in 1913 of Hugo Muensterberg's book, *Psychologie und Wirtschaftsleben*[9] (published in America under the title, *Psychology and Industrial Efficiency*).[10] Following the publication of this book, various German psychologists and educators worked scatteringly at vocational problems until in 1919 official notice was taken of the matter by the issuance of various provincial and municipal decrees, authorizing the establishment of bureaus and institutes of vocational guidance. Stimulated by this overt recognition, and still more cogently by the necessity of speeding up production arising out of the demands of the Versailles conference, the German people are exerting feverish energy in the direction of vocational guidance. All kinds of interests are engaged in the cause: trade unions are passing resolutions recommending the establishment of research bureaus; Engineers are preaching and practicing the adoption of principles of scientific management; schools, particularly vocational schools, are setting the necessary machinery into motion.

Psychologists are particularly active. One group, working in the laboratory of William Stern at Hamburg, have made a long series of investigations covering the following occupations: street-car driving, typesetting, typewriting, aviation, hairdressing, telegraphy.[11] Another group, at Berlin, are working under the direction of Moede and Piorkowski with headquarters at the *Technische Hochschule* located in the Charlottenburg section of Greater Berlin. Their activities are manifold. At the *Hochschule* they administer tests to students and apprentices; in the capacity of consultants they have introduced occupational tests into several factories; they conduct occasional short courses for vocational counselors at which they have had as many as a hundred in attendance; and they publish a journal for the dissemination of information about vocational psychology.[12] As a unique means of spreading interest and enthusiasm in vocational psychology these Berlin investigators have prepared a

[8] R. Guyot, editor-in-chief, 10, rue Scheffer, Paris, 16 e.

[9] Barth, Leipzig.

[10] Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1913.

[11] For more comprehensive treatment of German efforts in vocational guidance, see Erich Stern, *Die Festellung der psychische Berufseignung und die Schule, Beihefte, No. 26, Zeitschrift fuer Angewandte Psychologie*, Barth, Leipzig, 1923.

[12] *Praktische Psychologie*, S. Hirzel, Leipzig.

motion-picture film, copies of which they offer to American purchasers at the price of three hundred dollars.

Switzerland presents a picture of very pleasing activity in vocational guidance. Most of the efforts receive their animus from the University of Geneva and the Institut J. J. Rosseau. This latter institution, founded in 1912 under the inspiration of Professor Ed. Claparède, professor of experimental psychology at the University of Geneva, has been devoted chiefly to the application of psychology to educational problems. But in the light of the present demands in vocational education, the institute feels itself bound to direct a moiety of its energies into the industrial field. Occupations that its investigators are approaching analytically in Swiss factories and technical schools are watchmaking, printing trades and several occupations for women. The report of this latter group of studies, M. Bovet, director of the institute, advises, is in fair way to publication. Quite recently the International Bureau of Labor has agreed to lend its support in making the institute a general center for investigation in vocational guidance.

In Belgium there are several vocational guidance offices. That at Brussels, opened in 1914, discontinued during the war, was reopened in 1919. It is being supported by a tax levy of an annual rate of two centimes per inhabitant.

In Czechoslovakia an office was opened at Prague in 1921. Naturally it is not yet firmly established; though 10 per cent. of the 5,000 pupils who left the Prague schools in 1921 consulted it between May 1 and September 30.

In Spain, an institute for vocational guidance was opened at Barcelona in 1919, under the direction of Sr. J. Ruiz Castella, who has an able staff of specialists in anthropometry, psychometry and statistics. They have already published two volumes of their *Anals*.[13] This bureau is supported by the municipality of Barcelona and the principality of Catalonia to the extent of about $8,000 yearly (normal rate of exchange). Children leaving school to go to work are not obliged to visit the bureau, but they cannot register at certain desirable placement offices unless they receive advice at the bureau.

For the past three years annual international conferences have been held among the Europeans interested in vocational guidance; in 1920 at Geneva, in 1921 at Barcelona,[14] and in 1922 at Milan, Italy.

With such great industry as this, it is natural to expect that some of the European investigators should make mistakes. As a matter of fact, they are committing the same errors that American investigators have made and are still making. For example, in France they are disputing bitterly over the correct method of asking a child to tell what is his prevailing interest. The bureau at Bordeaux contends that he should write his answers; the bureau at Strassbourg, that he should give them orally. As a matter of fact, though interest is undeniably a weighty factor in determining vocational success, to depend upon the ambiguous interest-responses of a young child is an exceedingly unreliable way to help him into an ultimate vocation. Very grave errors are being committed in Europe in the zeal for using psychological tests. Extravagant claims are based upon test-measures of only a few people. Again, though devising tests in great number, ingenious ones too, few psychologists give their results in such terms that enable one

[13] *Anals de l'Institut d'Orientació Professional*, Barcelona, Sant Honorat, No. 5.

[14] A full report is published by the bureau at Barcelona.

to state with what degree of probability one who passes these tests will stand at a definite position in the scale of occupational success.[15] The psychology underlying many of the investigations is sadly fallacious. One says, "I think this occupation (say, typesetting), demands close concentration of attention; here is a psychological test that measures concentration of attention (e. g. the tachistoscope); I shall use it, and shall consider anyone who stands well in the tachistoscopic test as being fit for this occupation." This is faculty psychologizing of a kind long ago discredited. For there is no single test that measures any such hypothetical general faculty as concentration of attention.

Despite these errors, however, there is much being done in Europe that is promising. With such loftiness of purpose and such industriousness on the part of the able scientists at work, there are bound to be results of value. And it earnestly behooves those of us in America who are interested in the same problems to keep closely *en rapport* with our colleagues across the water, that we may profit by their mistakes and emulate the advances which they are bound to achieve.

HARRY DEXTER KITSON
DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY,
INDIANA UNIVERSITY

TEACHING ETHICS THROUGH MANUAL TRAINING[1]

IN an age when there is endless discussion concerning the curriculum of our public schools, it is well that the defenders of any particular study have clearly in mind what values it possesses. The time has come when no subject is sure of its place in the curriculum. There are more possible studies than the school can actually teach. The problem of survival reduces itself to a question of relative values. Many studies are important, but which ones are most important?

No longer does manual training[2] enjoy the ready popularity it once possessed. No longer can its defenders depend upon the old arguments which once were so forceful. Manual training is not the only study for the boy who dislikes books. Nor is it the only "vocational" study. There are numerous other "practical" subjects, "vocational" subjects, non-bookish subjects, struggling for a place in the curriculum of our public schools. While manual training gains somewhat in prestige because it partially has established itself as a study in the curriculum, it has lost the zest of being a new subject. In an age dominated by the idea of progress, fascinated with whatever is new, and having but little respect for customs and traditions, it is important that any "old" study seek new arguments for its place in the curriculum.

For several years there has been a growing feeling that our schools must lay more stress upon moral values. With all due respect to the progress that has been made in intellectual training—and great progress has been made—few would argue that there has been equal progress in moral training. More and more the question is being asked: What shall it profit society if a child gain the whole intellectual curriculum and lose the moral virtues? The modern home and the modern church are unable to solve the problem of moral education without the aid of the school. With all its other duties, the modern school must

[15] See H. D. Kitson "Vocational Guidance and the Theory of Probability," *School Review*, xxviii, February, 1920, 143-150.

[1] Address at the annual session of the Oklahoma Industrial Education Association, Stillwater, Oklahoma, November 3, 1922.

[2] In this discussion the term "manual training" is used to signify the working upon wood with tools. This interpretation of the term has been the most common one, and still is.

...gladly assume responsibility for moral ...

... the best methods of teaching ... by correlating it with the regular ... studies. If manual training can be regarded as an indirect method of teaching ..., there is much more probability that its permanent place in the curriculum will be assured. My contention is that the student of manual training should gain not only skill in the use of tools, but also the fundamentals of a philosophy of life. Who shall say that the latter result of his study will prove less beneficial than the former?

There is a view of life which maintains that the real purpose of living is to perfect spirit, both one's own spirit and that of others. It contends that all other goals are subordinate to this, and that true success in life must be measured as achievement,—achievement in the perfection of spirit. It is in terms of this view that manual training is to be considered.

One of the first things the student in manual training does is to decide what he is going to make. In some courses it may be that the choice of projects does not rest with the student. Often, however, there is some opportunity to choose what the project shall be. Here there is a chance to encourage the student to make some things for his parents, or brothers and sisters, or for his school. The altruistic motive should be developed. The ability to cooperate, moreover, can be given scope in the carrying out of group projects. In the early days of manual training, courses tended to overemphasize individual projects and thus unconsciously, if not consciously, to develop selfishness. During recent years, however, there has been considerable improvement. Playground apparatus to be used by the younger children, cabinets, bookshelves and filing cases for classrooms, repairs of school buildings and equipment,—these are but a few of the many ways in which manual training can serve the general needs of the school. School loyalty will grow within the heart of the boy who is making things for his school, just as filial love will grow through the making of things for his parents and home.

After the project has been decided upon, there is need of a plan of action. The general idea of what is to be made must be transformed into a set of working-drawings. Considerable time may be needed to perfect such drawings, but this work is important. In it one has an analogy of the big project which faces every earnest adolescent,—the making specific his life plans. When he has decided in a general way what the aim of his life is to be, he must then make very careful plans in order to accomplish his aim. Many a life has failed because the working plans were not carefully made and then closely followed. To be sure, there may be modifications of the working-plans as the project progresses, just as in life sometimes unforeseen circumstances will cause modifications in the course pursued. In the main, however, the goal and the working plans should be definitely in mind from the start. One needs to be familiar not only with what he is trying to do but also with the methods by which he expects to do it.

When the working plans are complete, then there is the actual carrying out of these plans in the making of the thing itself. Here once again is to be found an analogy of life. To realize one's ambition, to carry out one's plans, to give substance to one's dreams,—this after all is where men most often fail. Stern virtues are needed, such as hard work, perseverance, and courage. Unforeseen difficulties arise. All does not go quite as smoothly as anticipated. Mistakes may be made, and their results have to be taken into ac-

count. There come tests of the disposition and of the will. In some degree the young workman is experiencing the great battle of life. Will he be able to carry out his plan? Will he succeed or fail?

To the extent that his finished product equals his expectations, he will experience the satisfaction born of achievment,—the greatest happiness life has for man. Exhilaration, a sense of power, a consciousness of the ability to accomplish his purpose—these are worthy rewards of honest effort. He will learn the great truth, that in doing something worth while lies the secret of true happiness.

To the extent that his finished product fails to come up to his expectations, he will experience the reverse,—depression of spirit, a sense of weakness, a consciousness of inability to carry out his plan. The result of this may be undue discouragement and the weakening of moral fiber, or it may be a determination to try again and to succeed, profiting by the mistakes of the first attempt. Much will depend upon the individual and upon the attitude of the teacher.

There is one great advantage manual training has over many other studies. The student can see for himself what he is able to do, and there is little opportunity of deceiving either himself or others. "One may give an ambiguous answer, but he can not drive an ambiguous nail."[3] When the article is finished, it stands forth as visible evidence of his workmanship. Blemishes may be concealed to some extent, but not very much. What he has made, he has made. The finished product stands as a silent judge either to praise or condemn his efforts.

Another great ethical lesson which can be taught through manual training is the importance of time. Life is short, and he who would accomplish much must keep steadily at his task. The older method of teaching manual training placed little emphasis upon the element of time. A student could take as much time as he chose to complete a piece of work. Quality was the only standard. Now, however, along with the increasing emphasis upon speed in other types of school work, more stress is being laid upon the time element in manual training. While the finished product is visible evidence of the quality of workmanship, it does not indicate the time involved in its production. The student should know exactly how long he was in making each article. It would be well at all public exhibits of manual training work, to list not only the name of the maker of each article, but also his age and the number of hours spent upon the work. It might be well to state also the retail market price of the article in order that the value of the time spent in its production would be evident. If this were carefully done, soon it would become clear that the financial value of manual training is of far less importance than it sometimes has been thought to be. The real value of manual training is not its "vocational" value. To some extent it may serve a prevocational purpose, but certainly its greatest values are intellectual and moral. It teaches life.

In speaking of teaching ethics through manual training, one should not fail to note the many terms used in woodwork which also have moral significance, such as the following: "square," "foursquare," "true," "plumb," "level," "good timber," "rough-grained," "against the grain," "cross-grained," "in a groove," "saw wood," "plane," "upright," "polished," "nail it," "hammer away," and "blockhead." These are but a few of the expressions which ethics has borrowed from manual training. There appears to

[3] Judd: *Psychology of High School Subjects*, p. 268.

be much similarity between the creating a finished article out of a block of wood and the perfecting of a human spirit out of its early rough condition.

Manual training is important for ethics in still another way. It develops a democratic attitude toward all honest labor. It tends to break down any aristocratic notions which might exist in the mind of the student that some work is more sacred than other, that mental labor is more dignified than manual. This lesson is of great importance both for the welfare of our country and for the humanitarian development of the individual. "Stoop to the position of a workingman to rise above your own."[4]

If manual training is to have its greatest ethical value, then must the teacher himself be ethical. A great teacher teaches more than the subject matter; he teaches himself. And is there not a reflex influence of the teaching of manual training upon the one who teaches? Is there not, for the one who works in wood year after year and teaches others to work in wood, a tendency to develop his own ethical nature? Who shall say but that something of the goodness of the world's greatest teacher of ethics came as a result of his being a worker in wood?

HERBERT PATTERSON
OKLAHOMA AGRICULTURAL AND MECHANICAL COLLEGE

INSURANCE EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITY

In order to discover what insurance companies consider valuable preparation in insurance for students contemplating this career, a questionnaire was sent to one hundred of the leading life insurance companies in the United States. The survey included companies in nearly every state and in all the large cities which are centers of the life insurance business. All the companies were asked the following questions:

1. What program has your company for the education and training of employees?

2. What books, pamphlets, or periodicals does your company use in the education and training of employees?

3. Does your company maintain a library?

It was hoped that the answers obtained from the companies would indicate their general attitude on insurance education. The results were very suggestive and illuminating. The questionnaire was filled out and returned by seventy-six of the one hundred companies to whom it was mailed. Seventy-one companies gave definite information. Out of the seventy-one companies replying, forty-seven had an organized scheme of education for their employees, twenty-four companies had no program. Out of the seventy-one companies that answered the questionnaire, fifty-eight maintained a company library, while only thirteen did not keep a library.

Considerable difference of opinion existed among the companies as to the proper method for training employees. The main issue was between two doctrines which may be conveniently stated as education in fundamentals versus training by personal contact. In other words, the conflicting opinions held by the companies may be grouped as follows: (1) Quite a number of companies were of the opinion that the best training for insurance men was immediate placement under the supervision of an experienced worker. These companies were critical of the benefits to be derived from academic instruction in fundamentals. (2) A much larger group of companies favored training in educational courses and sound instruction in the funda-

[4] Rousseau: *Emile* (Everyman's), p. 159.

mental principles of insurance as a prerequisite to practice in the insurance business.

Twenty-two of the seventy-one companies placed emphasis on personal contact, or personal touch and supervision, as the only satisfactory method of educating and training employees. In favor of personal contact as the best plan to prepare employees one company said, "Our experience has taught us that the real life insurance solicitors are developed from personal contact. Our most successful men are those who may be entirely lacking in the technical requirements, but who have the necessary force and dominant personality, which can be utilized when they learn the rudiments of the policies themselves." Speaking from this point of view, another company wrote, "Our company has no definite program within its organization for the education and training of employees. We believe that better effectiveness is had by personal contact."

Now, a different attitude was taken by forty companies, that is, this group found educational courses to be of special value. One company wrote, "We have a three months' course in insurance and salesmanship conducted by mail on a very strict basis. We think it has accomplished good results." Another said, "For all new agents we have a home office training course with a definite curriculum. All new agents are required to take this training course." A third company stated, "Under the supervision of an educational committee, of which the secretary of the company is chairman, we have for the past two years conducted classes at the home office for our employees, where insurance, both theoretical and practical, is presented in a series of lectures by a selected staff of men from the office force who are well qualified as instructors. Examinations are given periodically, and the course is compulsory for employees who have been with the company two years or less." Another company replied, "The employees in the home office undergo a very thorough course of education and training. The education and training of agents in insurance is regarded as very important. In our larger general agencies new agents are required to take a special course of instruction before they are permitted to solicit the public for insurance."

One very interesting feature of the survey was the data received relative to the size of the libraries of the companies. The libraries of the various companies are made up of books, pamphlets, periodicals, and newspapers. The smallest library of any company consisted of two hundred books while the largest library contained 16,338 bound volumes, 25,025 pamphlets, 377 periodicals, and 464 house organs. A rough estimate would place the average insurance library at about four hundred books and documents. A conservative statement of the total number of books in all libraries of the life insurance companies in America would be no less than 100,000 volumes.

Another valuable phase of the survey was the character of the literature used by the companies in their various educational activities. The most used publications were those of The Spectator Company, The Actuarial Societies, The Insurance Institute of Toronto, The Alexander Hamilton Institute, The A. W. Shaw and Company, and the R and R Service. The most popular magazine subscriptions of the companies were: "Insurance Field," "Spectator," "National Underwriter," "American Insurance Digest," "Weekly Underwriter," "Insurance News," "Insurance Service," "Bests," "The Insurance Salesman," and "Diamond Life Bulletins." Among the authors of insurance text-

books, the best known were: Moir, "Principles of Life Assurance"; Huebner, "Life Insurance"; Alexander, "What Life Insurance is and does"; "How to Sell Life Insurance"; "Successful Agent"; Morton, "The Life Insurance Business"; Hawkins, "The Selling Process"; Falker, "Notes on Life Insurance"; Dawson, "Practical Lessons on Life Insurance"; Keys, "A. B. C. of Life Insurance"; Slough, "Practical Life Insurance Salesmanship"; Anderson, "How to Solicit"; Stevenson, "Life Insurance Salesmanship"; Young, "The Science and Art of Writing Life Insurance"; and Lindsay, "Life Insurance Salesmanship." In addition to the use of the above mentioned books, practically all of the companies published pamphlets and circulars of their own.

In Maine a plan of insurance education is operated by underwriters which consists of an essay contest open to boys and girls of the high schools. One eastern company gives an annual prize of two hundred dollars to the School of Business Administration of Harvard University for the best essay on "Life Insurance" by any member of the graduating class. A New York company offers a scholarship at Columbia University for the insurance course.

By the way of conclusion, no argument is advanced to underestimate the value of personal contact as a means of preparing insurance workers. In fact, there is nothing to take the place of the training which comes from practical experience under the supervision of successful men. However, greater appreciation of the value of a course in the fundamentals of insurance ought to be recognized. That such is coming to be the case is evidenced by ample testimony from a large number of companies. This fact is emphatically set forth in the "Announcement" of the establishment of a school by a well known company:

> By reason of its close and intimate relation to human affairs—business, financial, professional and domestic—life insurance is one of the most important institutions of modern civilization. The successful life insurance salesman enters upon transactions with his clients involving millions of dollars, and it therefore goes without saying that a calling that leads to so large and vital transactions should require a man of some special training in his profession before he should begin to practice it. This company believes that the old catch-as-catch-can method of engaging life insurance salesmen is determined to go the way of the one-horse shay, the prairie-schooner, and the horseback method of transportation. We believe that the public is more and more demanding trained men in this profession, and the more important clientele have already begun to treat with none other. Thus, having an abiding interest in the success of the men whom we engage to enter upon this calling with us, and with due regard to the intelligent and proper practice of our profession and its resulting service to our clients, the company has established a school of salesmanship at the home office for the purpose of training men in the fundamentals of life insurance salesmanship before sending them out to practice.

On every hand there is proof of a growing appreciation of the value of thorough and broad training in the basic principles of insurance. Not only is there a growing recognition of the value of educational courses on insurance, but there is also a keener estimate of the merit and worth of adequate educational training in the general subjects of economics, sociology, and psychology. Indeed, there is to-day a strong sentiment among a large number of the insurance companies that greater development can be achieved by getting away from the narrowness which has characterized much of the preparation in the past.

CLYDE J. CROBAUGH
INDIANA UNIVERSITY

EDUCATIONAL EVENTS

THE ANNUAL REPORT OF THE UNITED STATES COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION

"What we do or fail to do in public education will largely determine the future of our experiment in democracy," says Jno. J. Tigert, United States commissioner of education, in his annual report for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1922, just made public. Assimilation of the foreign born, removal of illiteracy, adjustment of inequalities in educational opportunity, and inculcation of proper ideals concerning our form of government are problems which the educational forces of the country must meet, says the commissioner, and informed leadership in dealing with these problems is needed more than ever before. The United States Bureau of Education is required by law to promote the cause of education throughout the country, to be informed on all subjects pertaining to education, and to disseminate such information, according to the report.

"The most casual investigation shows that some of the states are more successful than others in solving the problems of public education," says the commissioner. "While some of the states, through years of experience and through the consecutive efforts of generations of trained leaders, have accomplished notable achievements in various phases of educational theory and practice, we find certain other states seeking the answers to many of the same questions, laboriously and at great expense exploring ground that has already been carefully charted. Much of this costly duplication of experiment has undoubtedly been saved by the work of the Bureau of Education, which has made available to all the states the experiences and achievements of the most progressive and of the most highly endowed as far as its resources would permit." To increase substantially the support of the bureau would be a conservative investment, in the opinion of the commissioner, considering the service that its activities give to the whole people.

The commissioner points out that we have 48 systems of education, each of the sovereign states maintaining its own program, adopting its own methods of organization, administration, and instruction, and determining for itself the amount and character of instruction which shall be provided for the children of its citizens. "This is as it should be, for the genius of the American people will probably never accept the idea of a centralized national system of public schools," says Commissioner Tigert. The federal bureau undertakes to collect statistics and other facts about these various school systems and to publish this information so that the general public as well as educators in every part of the country will know what progress has been made in education.

"In an effort to make its service to the country more effective, the bureau has divided its functions into four parts," the report states. These are: field service, research and investigation of special educational problems, educational surveys, and dissemination of information.

Service in the field by representatives of the bureau includes lectures and addresses upon educational topics before teachers, students, women's clubs, business men's clubs, and other organizations interested in education, conducting and assisting in special conferences for the consideration of educational questions, visiting schools and conferring with school officers and teachers for the purpose of securing information and participation in educational surveys.

One of the most important types of service rendered by the bureau is the work of educational surveys. During the past year 41 surveys have been made, including a state system of public schools, a state system of higher education, 31 of higher educational institutions, 4 of public school systems of cities, 3 of school buildings in cities, and 1 of a county system of public schools. Some of these were comprehensive studies requiring the services of 20 or more experts for periods of field work varying from four to eight weeks; others were surveys of individual institutions made by a single representative of the bureau in one or two days. The recommendations of these surveys have resulted in substantial improvements in the school systems studied.

To [illegible] its function as a clearing house of information the bureau is at all times engaged [illegible] systematic study of a variety of current problems. The staff is so limited that it is impossible for the specialists to give full attention to more than a small part of the perplexing questions upon which school authorities [illegible] but in spite of handicaps research work of great extent and variety has been done during the past year.

The results of the research and survey work have been published by the bureau as part of its work in the dissemination of information. One hundred and sixteen documents of all kinds have been published during the year. *School Life*, the monthly periodical of the bureau, was discontinued after December, 1921, on account of the failure of the two Houses of Congress to agree upon a measure for the publication of periodicals by government bureaus. Since that time, however, action has been taken which provided for the resumption of publication in September.

"To teach the primitive people of Alaska and teach them something of sanitary living, to help them earn their livelihood by the reindeer industry, to give them medical attention, to relieve destitution among them, and to maintain schools for them and their children, the bureau sent to Alaska a force of 199 persons during the past year," says the report. "The distribution of reindeer among the natives and the use of the enterprise as the form of industrial education best adapted to the races inhabiting the untimbered regions of Alaska remains under the supervision of the Bureau of Education."

THIRTY-SIXTH ANNUAL CONVENTION OF THE ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND PREPARATORY SCHOOLS OF THE MIDDLE STATES AND MARYLAND

More than 400 men and women representing about 300 educational institutions attended the thirty-sixth annual convention of the Association of College and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, held at Wilmington, Del., on December 1 and 2, at the Tower Hill School. The morning session of December 1 and the meetings of the affiliated associations took place at the Tower Hill School; the afternoon program of December 1 was given at Longwood, outside of Wilmington, the home of Pierre Du Pont.

Addresses of welcome were delivered by the Hon. Leroy Harvey, mayor of Wilmington, who closed with a salutation in Latin, and by John D. Skilton, head master of the Tower Hill School, who declared that "Delaware has been making enormous endeavors and wonderful progress educationally during recent years. Deep, earnest, consecrated thought and deed have been employed for the improvement of the material and immaterial factors looking to the sound education of all children of the state." Dr. Skilton referred to the fact that this was the first convention of the association to be held under the auspices of a preparatory school.

Dr. William Mann Irvine, head master of the Mercersburg Academy and president of the association, responded to the addresses of welcome.

The topic, "Character and Spiritual Ideals as Fundamentals in American Education," was discussed by Dean Howard McClenahan, of Princeton University, and Dean Winifred J. Robinson, of Women's College, University of Delaware. Papers on "What Can Schools and Colleges Do to Restore the Moral Tone of our Young People" were presented by Dr. Boyd Edwards, head master of the Hill School, Pottstown, Pa., and Dr. Francis H. Paul, principal of the DeWitt Clinton High School, New York City.

Following a luncheon tendered by the Tower Hill School the visitors were taken in automobiles, furnished by citizens of Wilmington, to Longwood.

The Hon. Calvin Coolidge, vice-president of the United States, addressed the assemblage briefly.

The general topic of the afternoon session of December 1 was "The Problems of Increasing Numbers in Schools and Colleges," which was discussed under three heads: (*a*) "The Problem of Finance and Equipment to Keep Pace with Growth," Dr. J. H. Penniman, acting provost of the University of Pennsylvania, and

Dr. Livingston Farrand, of Cornell University; "The Problem of Entrance Standards," Professor Adam Leroy Jones, director of admissions, Columbia University; "The Problem of Maintaining Intellectual Standards in the Student Body," President Frank Aydelotte, of Swarthmore College.

The following officers were elected by the association:

President, Dr. Livingston Farrand, Cornell; *vice president from New York*, Booth C. Davis, Alfred University; *Pennsylvania*, G. L. Omwake, Ursinus College; *Maryland*, A. N. Ward, Western Maryland College; *New Jersey*, R. J. Tremorrow, of Hackettstown; *District of Columbia*, Lucy M. Wing, Madeira Academy, Washington; *secretary*, Dr. George William McClelland, University of Pennsylvania; *treasurer*, Stanley R. Yarnell, Philadelphia; *executive committee*: Dr. William M. Irvine, Mercersburg; Frank Aydelotte, Swarthmore; Julian Park, Buffalo; W. E. Stearns, Newark, N. J.

An informal subscription dinner took place at the Hotel Du Pont on the evening of December 1.

The following allied organizations held meetings on December 2: Classical Association of the Atlantic States; Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland; College Conference on English in the Central Atlantic States; Association of Modern Language Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland; Association of Teachers of Mathematics in the Middle States and Maryland; Science Section of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland.

$10,000 SALARIES AT COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

CREATION of ten professorial positions with a salary of $10,000 and of twenty-five professorial positions with a salary of $7,500 is contemplated in the budget proposals for Columbia University, as revealed in the annual report of President Nicholas Murray Butler, made public last week. All other professorial salaries are to be maintained at $6,000.

"The committee on education explicitly stated," Dr. Butler said, "that it was not their intention to recommend that the normal minimum salary of a professor remain always at $6,000, but merely to establish the principle that unless a professor at a salary of $6,000 be advanced to one of the vacant positions at a higher salary, his compensation will remain at $6,000 until it is practicable to raise the salaries of the entire group of professors in receipt of that salary to, say, $6,500 or $7,000.

"In such case, it might of course be desirable at the same time to raise the salaries of the group receiving $7,500 to $8,000 or $9,000, and the salaries of the group receiving $10,000 to, say, $12,000. Such changes as these would, however, not affect the principle involved, but would be entirely dependent upon the available resources of the university. That the university should aim to pay a salary of not less than $10,000 to a professor of long service and distinction is certainly sound policy."

Under the caption "The Passing Show," Dr. Butler states that "the spirit and temper of journalism, which may perhaps be fairly described as day-to-dayness, is the besetting vice of the present day and generation." He says:

It is the enemy of constant and continuing interest in any serious subject, and it elevates superficiality to the plane of an occupation. This spirit and temper have notably invaded American education to its grave undoing. A passion for information as to current events has driven out both knowledge and scholarship. These events may or may not be correctly reported and interpreted. They may or may not be of considerable or permanent importance. Given only the fact that they are current events, they are fastened upon the attention of curious youth with all the paraphernalia that would accompany the revelation of a fundamental law of nature or an interpretation of the rise and fall of the Roman Empire. To find this spirit and temper so widely abroad in the world is distressing enough but to find it invading the school and college is disheartening in the extreme.

CAMPAIGN TO REPEAL LUSK LOYALTY LAWS IN NEW YORK

PLANS for a campaign against the Lusk "loyalty laws" affecting teachers and schools were made at a meeting held at the Civic Club, New York City, on November 28. It was de-

[illegible] that those attending the conference would form the nucleus of a general citizens' committee to fight for the repeal of the laws. Howard W. Nudd, director of the Public Education Association, was chosen permanent chairman and was authorized to appoint an executive committee of not more than seven persons who would have the power to add to their numbers.

The conference had been called by Henry R. Linville, president of the Teachers' Union. A number of the individuals attending were delegates of their respective organizations. Others announced they had not been officially appointed to represent their organizations, but in every case, it was said, the body they represented was on record as opposed to the Lusk laws.

Albert De Silva, chairman of the legislative committee of the City Club, announced that the latter organization was planning for a general meeting to protest against the Lusk laws early in January. It was agreed, therefore, to have bills for the repeal of the measures introduced early in the session so that the proposed meeting would have something concrete to discuss. Abraham Lefkowitz, chairman of the legislative committee of the Teachers' Union, announced that arrangements had already been made to introduce bills repealing the law relating to teachers' loyalty certificates as a bipartisan measure. Similar action was proposed as regards the law providing for the licensing of private schools, it was announced by Algernon Lee.

There was a general feeling of confidence that the repeal of the Lusk laws could be effected with ease, according to the *New York Evening Mail*. Governor-elect Smith's pledge against the Lusk laws and his veto of similar measures when he was in office were considered good ground for such feeling. Several speakers, however, warned against overconfidence, the *Mail* correspondent goes on to say, pointing out that sentiment in New York City did not necessarily indicate upstate views.

The organizations represented at the luncheon conference included the American Civil Liberties Union, the Central Trades and Labor Council, the Men's City Club, the Women's City Club, the Civic Club, the Federation for Child Study, the Hudson Guild, the League for Industrial Democracy, the State League of Women Voters, the National Consumers' League, the New York State Federation of Labor, the New York School of Social Work, the New School for Social Research, the Parent-Teachers' Association, Ethical Culture Society, the Public Education Association, the Rand School, the Teachers' Union, the United Neighborhood Houses, the Y. M. C. A., and the Y. W. C. A.

THE JEWS AND HARVARD

A DETAILED account of the Jewish student side of what took place at Harvard University last spring prior to the university action which culminated in the appointment of a "sifting committee" on the Jewish question is given in the latest issue of the *Menorah Journal*, organ of the Menorah Society at Harvard.

The article reveals that in a letter addressed by a committee of Jewish students to Dean Greenough of Harvard the following principles were laid down:

1. Any limitation of the number of Jewish students whether direct or indirect, whether based on any theory of racial differences, or on arguments of expediency, we must consider unjustifiable on any ground. As Americans, we should view such a step as a direct contradiction of a philosophy of Americanism predicated on the theory that no distinction shall be drawn between men on the basis of "race, color, or previous condition of servitude." As Harvard men, we must regard it as a disillusioning commentary on traditional Harvard liberalism. And as Jews, we should feel humiliated at this apparently unprecedented expression of racial discrimination in the United States, against a group that has been taught to consider itself an integral part of the larger American life. The implication in such a step that, somehow or other, the Jews are an element whose presence brings problems to be studied from a different angle than the problems of non-Jewish Americans, is fraught with danger to any attempts at creating a richer American life.

2. Nor can we allow the assumption that there exists any group of "undesirable" as against "desirable" Jews, no matter how the line of demarcation be drawn. That members of the

Jewish faith may have their black sheep is no more astonishing than that members of other religious groups have their undesirable specimens. And, if there are at the university such Jewish students as tend to bring discomfort to the general moral or social sense of the student body, then as Harvard men we should be anxious to remove from our midst such undesirable citizens. But we must stress again that it would be only an unfair misapprehension of racial values that would allow a classification of Jewish students into groups—whether by the geographical origins of their parents, length of residence in this country, or social status.

The *Boston Transcript* comments:

It is clear that this letter contains the meat of the position which the Jews took on the whole question, and which they will probably continue to take. Whether one agrees with the reasoning entirely or not, it remains a fact that it constitutes the philosophy of the adjustment of the Jew to his environment in an American university.

RUSSIAN UNIVERSITY STUDENTS AND THE AMERICAN RELIEF ADMINISTRATION

Five thousand students who are being fed by American charity in the universities of Moscow and Petrograd requested that their ration be cut 20 per cent., in order that another thousand needy students might be fed, according to a dispatch to the American Relief Administration.

The European Student Relief, American Section, which is conducting the student feeding under A. R. A. auspices, granted the request of the students now in the kitchens and since November 1 the daily meal furnished has been reduced from 1,500 to 1,200 calories and the number of students accordingly increased from 5,000 to 6,000.

The clothing and housing condition among students remains serious, according to Miss Marcia Dunham, representative of the Y. W. C. A. on the staff of Colonel William N. Haskell of the American Relief Administration. "We have received 110 bales of old clothes from America, contributed mostly by college men, and we are beginning to distribute it here as well as in Odessa and Kiev. But it is pitifully inadequate," said Miss Dunham.

There are coats and vests without trousers and odds and ends of costumes, but the need is so great that the Russian students, fortunately, are not over discriminating.

I visited what they call a dormitory the other night. It was really an old school building. There was not a stick of furniture in it. The students were crowded from ten to twenty in a room and the richest of them had a bed, made from an old door, one end of which rested on a window-sill while the other was propped up on old bricks from the broken down stove. The rest of them were sleeping on the floor with such rags as they could find for covering.

And yet, when we asked them why they consented to remain in such conditions, they shrugged their shoulders and answered, "How else are we to get an education?" One strapping fellow said, "I have been waiting six years for a chance to get to the university; do you think I will give up now?" Another boasted proudly, "I am the richest man here. My wealth consists of two poods of potatoes."

THE NEW YORK STATE COMMISSION ON VENTILATION

The report of the New York State Commission on Ventilation will be issued about January 1. This study of ventilation was made possible through the generosity of Mrs. Elizabeth Milbank Anderson, of New York City, and extended from the fall of 1913 to the spring of 1917.

Part two of the report, after giving the historical development of the art of ventilation, gives in detail the plan, methods, and results of the extensive field investigations made by the commission, based upon an intensive study of the following types of school ventilating equipment:

Method 1. Rooms ventilated entirely through the use of windows.

Method 2. Rooms ventilated through the use of windows, supplemented by the use of a single air duct or vent in the room. This type of "exhaust" in which no fan is used for the withdrawal of room air, is known as a "gravity exhaust"; the air finds its own way out through it.

Method 3. Rooms ventilated by means of fans pumping air into the rooms, supplemented by a simple air duct in the room through which air might find its own way out. This is known as "plenum supply, gravity exhaust" system.

Method 4. Rooms ventilated by means of fans

into the rooms, with the air of the mechanically exhausted through spe- also by means of fans. This is known and exhaust fan'' system.

The above Method 4, modified so air was supplied to the room over again, after being re-conditioned before circulated.

also included an extended inves- the problem of artificial humidifica- schoolroom and an experimental the circulation of the air within the with air inlets and exhaust outlets various positions and combinations. recommendations in part are as follows:

summary we may conclude that either ventilation or plenum fan ventilation— the plant be properly designed and operated— generally satisfactory results from the standpoint of the air conditions in the average schoolroom. We have found it possible to main- either of these procedures air conditions schoolroom that would be considered satis- by all the ordinary physical tests and con- which are reasonably comfortable and sat- to the occupants. The main difference lies in the fact that the air of the fan-ventilated room is likely to be about two degrees F. higher, and more uniform in temperature, and that the air movement in this method is considerably greater.

We find that on the whole, other things being equal, the window-ventilated room at 67 degrees F. is somewhat more comfortable than the fan-ventilated room at 69 degrees F.

It appears that 68 degrees F. is a critical temperature as regards both comfort and susceptibility to respiratory disease; and the great advantage of window ventilation lies in the fact that the reduced air flow in the zone of occupancy permits this low temperature to be maintained.

A PRINCETON SCIENTIST AND THE FUNDAMENTALISTS

Professor Edwin Grant Conklin, of Princeton University, attacked the arguments against evolution, particularly among church people, in his opening lecture at the Lowell Institute, Boston, on November 22. Speaking of the effort to bar the teaching of evolution and of modernism from churches, schools and colleges, Professor Conklin said:

A man who has been three times candidate for the presidency of the United States is the Torquemada of this new inquisition. Stimulated by his preaching, bills have been introduced in the legislatures of several states, forbidding by fine and imprisonment the teaching of evolution as it concerns man, in tax-supported schools and colleges. These opponents of evolution have neither the technical training nor the desire to weigh critically the evidences for the truth of evolution. Properly to appreciate such evidences requires some first-hand knowledge of morphology, physiology, embryology, ecology, paleontology, and genetics. It is said that when Mr. Bryan was asked whether he had read any books on evolution, he answered, ''No, I settled that question long ago.'' I once asked a man who was denouncing Darwin if he had ever read Darwin's books, and he replied, ''I wouldn't touch them with a ten-foot pole.'' Not facts, evidence or sweet reasonableness can penetrate such an armor.''

EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND NEWS

Dr. Albert Leonard, superintendent of schools at New Rochelle, N. Y., was elected president of the New York State Teachers' Association at the meeting on November 28.

Professor John Manley, general editor of *Modern Philology*, and professor of English in the University of Chicago, has been elected to succeed Professor M. P. Kerr as president of the Modern Humanities Research Association for the year 1922-23. Professor Gustave L. Van Roosbroeck, of the University of Minnesota, has been reelected as secretary for America.

Superintendent A. C. Parsons, of Oklahoma City, has been elected to the board of trustees of Oklahoma City College.

Dr. Frank J. Goodnow, president of Johns Hopkins University, was elected president, and Dr. A. F. Woods, president of the University of Maryland, secretary, of the Association of College Presidents and Reserve Officers Training Corps Inspectors, which met at Baltimore, December 2.

Professor J. Franklin Bobbitt, of the University of Chicago, will return to Los Angeles to continue the curriculum investigations

begun under his direction last year. He will spend January, February and March in Los Angeles.

C. B. J. SNYDER, superintendent of school buildings in New York City for over thirty years, has asked the Board of Education to retire him shortly after January 1 next. Mr. Snyder first sought retirement last July, but was prevailed upon by the board to take a six months leave of absence to recover his health and then return to active duty.

PROFESSORS WALTER F. DEARBORN, Alexander J. Inglis, and Henry W. Holmes, of the Harvard Graduate School of Education, have been appointed members of the Harvard Administrative Board for University Extension. Professor Arthur F. Whittem is chairman of the board.

AMONG those who accepted invitations to attend the "conference of progressives" at Washington last week were Mrs. Marietta Johnson, of Fairhope, Alabama, and Mrs. Edith C. Paul, president of the Washington (D. C.) High School Teachers' Union.

PROFESSOR JOSEPH H. WILLITS, of the Wharton School of Finance, University of Pennsylvania, has been appointed by the United States Coal Commission to direct the commission's inquiry into wages, earnings and wage contracts.

PAUL FLETCHER CADMAN, president of the Paris Branch of the American Field Service and retiring Field Service fellow in law at the University of Paris, was awarded the French state doctorate November 16 at the conclusion of his defence of his thesis, "Le Role social de l'Entrepreneur dans la Reorganisation de l'Industrie en Amerique." The jury, composed of Professors Germain-Martin, Bertrand Nogaro and Paul Cellinet, congratulated the new doctor of laws at the conclusion of the defence and made the award with the highest mention, according to the Paris edition of the *New York Herald*. Mr. Cadman is the second Field Service fellow to receive the French state doctorate, but the first to take it in law. Mr. Albert Noyes, Jr., son of Professor Albert Noyes, of the University of Illinois, who was a Field Service fellow in chemistry, was awarded the state doctorate of science in 1920.

RUDYARD KIPLING has been elected rector of St. Andrews University, Scotland, in succession to Sir James M. Barrie.

AMONG the seventeen educators, publicists, dramatists and actors constituting the initial committee in charge of the plan to establish a national theater appear the names of Nicholas Murray Butler, Brander Matthews, and William Lyon Phelps. One of the purposes of the new movement is to "stimulate the study of the drama of the present and of the past in our universities, our colleges, and our schools."

GOVERNOR GENERAL WOOD authorized the following on December 1 at Manila: "I do not desire to make any statement regarding my return to the States, and the assumption of the duties as president of the University of Pennsylvania at this time. I can not say when I will leave, as that depends upon the needs of the situation here entirely." Officials in the islands are reported as unanimous in the belief that General Wood will be unable to leave before the middle of the year with indications even that that is doubtful.

DR. L. ADAMS BROWN, Roosevelt professor of systematic theology in the Union Theological Seminary, gave three lectures on "The Religion of Democracy: A Study of Religious Types," at King's College, London, England, on November 20 and 27 and December 4.

A MEMORIAL service for the late Dr. Sophie Bryant, who died recently in the Alps, was held at St. Martin-in-the-Fields, London, at which Sir Michael Sadler delivered an address. Dr. Bryant was one of the three women first to serve on a royal commission, the Bryce Commission of 1894-95 on Secondary Education; she was a member of the Senate of the University of London, of the Education Committee of the London County Council, and later of the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education. From 1903 to 1905 she was president of the Head Mistresses' Association.

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE

THE PUBLIC SCHOOL YESTERDAY, TODAY AND TOMORROW

Few of us can remember the time when and the place where there was no public school. Whatever is reminiscent shall be in the first person and singular number. At the mature age of four years, I first entered school in the primary department of the Female Seminary, Rockford, Illinois. This school has since developed into a full-fledged accredited college, the Alma Mater of the renowned Jane Adams. In that institution were spent the first and last years of my life as a pupil. The "betweenities" were by no means void of interest. In winter, the distance seemed too far, so I was placed in a "dame's school" nearer home. I console myself with the fact that Longfellow, Scott and several other celebrities began as A-B-C darians in a "dame's school."

When I was nine years old, the graded public schools were organized in Rockford. Although I had been reading fluently in the fifth reader, much to my disgust I was promptly relegated to the third to correspond with my wretched number work. The schools were a success from the start. At the age of sixteen I was graduated from the high school. I remember my teachers with reverent affection. They commanded respectful obedience and earnest endeavor. To Miss Beulah Small of Mount Holyoke, Mass., I owe much for the beauty and glory I have been enabled to see in life. She superintended our closing year. It has always been a matter of pride to me that the teacher who examined me in mathematics for the higher institution returned my papers with the remark, "You have been a high school student. I can always tell them from the neatness and accuracy of their papers." I have since been led to wonder if the college professors can pay an equal tribute to the high school of today.

Normal schools were not so numerous nor considered so essental as now. So it came to pass that after my second graduation, I entered immediately upon my career as a teacher. During a vacation I had previously taught three months in the country, and boarded round. After a year's experience as first assistant in an excellent grammar school (I have never known a better), I was persuaded by friends of my parents to accept the principalship of the high school in Hannibal, Missouri, in the fall of 1867. Missouri was a border slave state. This was soon after the Civil War, and the public school had been in existence only four months. It was looked upon with disfavor by the majority of the people, who were of pronounced southern sentiment and considered the free school a northern innovation. But the private schools were closed and there was no alternative. I was only 21, and not much to look at, not having attained the corporosity of later years. I had three assistants, one with a small session room, and two with recitation rooms. As to numbers, I have no remembrance except that my room held 60 girls and 100 boys—I almost said boys and men, for some of them were older than the teacher. No mention of slavery or the Civil War was permissible—these things were so fresh in our minds then. Another problem was to persuade some of the boys that they must not chew tobacco in school and decorate the floor with their expectorations. The most delicate question was how to convince the older pupils, without wounding their pride, that their teacher could not accept their escort to evening services, church socials and strawberry festivals.

The high school rooms were in the heart of the town in a brick building called Melpontian Hall. Blazoned across the front was the sign "Slaves Bought and Sold," for the Melpontian Hall had been a slave market before the war. As to the qualifications of the teachers, little can be said. Some idea of their lack of even mechanical preparation may be gleaned from the fact that some refused to arrange names alphabetically while others declined to make out a definite daily program. Unique and outrageous forms of discipline were not unknown. One grade teacher boasted that she punished a refractory boy by suspending him from a hook in the ceiling, by a rope under his arms until he begged for mercy, and then compelling him to kneel upon an open Bible and promise not to do so any more. And the superintendent was unspeakable. He "made broad the border of his phylacteries" by entering the high school every morning reading a

chapter from the Bible, and offering a long personal prayer. On account of corrupt practices, at the Christmas holidays, a delegation of leading citizens took him in a row boat at midnight out into the middle of the Mississippi River, and gave him an unceremonious ducking, ordering him to leave town before daybreak. He left. Nothing but the chivalry of those big southern boys carried me through the weeks that followed before a new superintendent was installed.

It is a far cry from this rude, disorganized school to the Lewis and Clark High School in Spokane, where my labors as a teacher closed. Justice compels me to add that these conditions did not prevail at any time in the North to my knowledge, nor in the schools of Hannibal, when, 29 years ago, we transferred our allegiance to the State of Washington. The work had become so thorough and well organized from these gruelling beginnings that I have known pupils to be taken from the class rooms of the Hannibal High school, and to pass creditably a teachers' examination in order to do substitute work. Could our present day high school students do any better? Several of the graduates of this later date have been engaged in educational work in Spokane, Seattle and other parts of our state.

The rural schools of yesterday! Our New England teachers of the past wrought wonders under most trying circumstances. They boarded round (have you ever tried it?), knew no privacy beyond the circle of the family fire place, shivered in icy bed-rooms, did their own janitor work in rudely furnished schoolrooms. They had inferior text books, often no two alike, except, perhaps, in case of Webster's spelling books. They had no persuasive paraphernalia but the birch behind the door. They evolved their own mode of procedure from the necessities of the occasion, and not from the cut-and-dried theories of the other man. They were rigid disciplinarians, and were not subject to qualms of conscience as to the severity of the administration. They hampered themselves with voluminous rules, and woe be to the miscreant who forgot or defied them! They organized spelling matches and singing schools, and led the frolic at husking bees and apple parings. It was community work, but they did not know it. They lived on a mere pittance, and planted the seeds of sturdy self-reliance. All honor to the rural schools of yesterday! It cannot be done today. The facilities for transportation and the dissemination of newspapers and magazines have made our country communities more cosmopolitan. They are restive under the limitations of their surroundings. The rural school can never compete with the city school in equipment and diversity of branches taught. A partial compensation for this is found in the necessity for personal application and concentration. The influence of an earnest teacher counts for more because it is not dissipated among so many.

Lack of tenure of office discourages the laying of foundations upon which an incoming teacher either cannot or will not build.

The school year is too short, sometimes for only four or five months. Lengthening of the school year will often deprive the farmer of help he must have in seed time and harvest. Until educational needs over-shadow industrial necessities, the rural school year must be comparatively short.

Living conditions in some localities are almost intolerable. Mrs. Preston has done much to relieve this situation in Washington by her success in establishing teachers' cottages in many places, where a semblance at least of home life may be maintained in privacy and independence. Yet it requires rare qualifications to conduct a rural school successfully. Salaries and living conditions must be made attractive in order to command these qualifications. But the lure of the city beckons, and you may legislate until doomsday, and you cannot legislate away the fact that the social atmosphere and the opportunities for personal advancement in the city will outweigh any allurements you may legislate into the rural school. Only a teacher of somewhat inferior ability, or one imbued with the true missionary spirit, will continue indefinitely in the work of the country school unless held by some other personal responsibility or individual interest. Am I wrong? Would you?

In speaking of the town schools as we find them now, no effort is made to disparage the preparation, ability or conscientious purpose of the vast majority of our fine array of teach-

No teacher now in the work *dare* give publicity to a wish for a purer scholastic outlook, stripped of excrescences having no educational value. The opinions here advanced may be unpopular, you may not agree with them, but they are at least honest convictions, not taken from books, but the result of over 30 years experience, and many more years of observation.

It would be ridiculous and narrow to contend that methods in instruction have not greatly improved even in the last ten years. This is especially noticeable in reading, the foundation of all. This is not true in the upper grades, but in the lower grades it is marvelous. To those of us who blundered through the alphabet method, it seems as if the impossible has been accomplished. Visit any of our up-to-date primaries and see for yourselves.

The equipment of rooms devoted to natural science has increased almost beyond belief. Laboratory methods have amplified, and given life to more subjects than science, manual training and domestic arts have dignified the labor of the hands. But nothing has been devised to supplant the old time drill in spelling and the multiplication table. Medical inspection in many places has had a beneficial effect in keeping down epidemics and rectifying defects that might otherwise become chronic and serious. Hygienic measures in matters of cleanliness, ventilation and lighting of school buildings, supplemented by instruction along sanitary lines, must develop a wholesome regard for the laws of health. This is of so far reaching a tendency that it is beyond computation.

In the purely constructive system, the most significant movement in recent years has been the introduction of the Junior High School. It introduces into the seventh and eighth grades many subjects usually postponed until the ninth, or regular high school course. Combined with these, a specialty is made of industrial subjects looking toward life employment. The course is elective and highly flexible. Promotions are made by subjects and not by classes. This arrangement proposes to encourage students to find more readily the life work best suited to their ability, talents, genius, or inclination, at the same time giving them many of the purely cultural subjects of a full high school course.

Parent-Teachers Associations, too, have done much to bridge over the chasm between the home and the school.

The equipment and curricula of our town schools of today would astound the teachers of 35 or 40 years ago. Everything conceivable has been introduced to broaden the scope and tickle the fancy. We have not only the former fundamentals of reading, spelling, mathematics, grammar, geography, etc. We have physical culture—including ordinary gymnastics, running, jumping, swimming, dancing, etc. We have drawing, technical music, stenography, type-writing, book-keeping, banking, journalism, dramatic art, oratory, agriculture, manual training, domestic science, nursing, photography, auto-mechanics, foundry work—is anything forgotten? Are not all these branches crowded into one building too confusing, too heterogeneous, too dissipating of the mental activities? Is there lack of concentration?

But listen! We must also have a multiplicity of games, picnics, banquets, dances, movies, theatricals, operas, minstrel shows, circuses and what not. Is it all educational? The advocates of all these activities claim that this development enlarges the sphere of attainments and broadens the cultural possibilities. We might question whether it deepens the stream of knowledge, or only spreads its volume over a wider surface with shallower purpose and more superficial attainments. We are informed that the freshman class of 1920-21 at an eastern college fell below the record of any previous class, and that the standing of the school as a whole was the lowest for 20 years. Why? The faculty decided it was because of the adventitious activities which absorbed the interest and sapped the mental vigor of the students. If true at college, where youth is approaching maturity, is it not eminently true in the adolescent period of high school development? Then, too, the personality of the teacher is submerged in the scramble for unheard of activities to thrill the uninitiated, and astound the public. Where are the Dr. Arnolds of today? They are here, but eclipsed by the fun and frolic of the hour.

Is there a lack of wholesome discipline? Who would go back to the humiliating floggings of the past? But have we not swung to the other extreme—a cringing fear of giving merited correction, both at home and at school? We are enjoined to speak softly lest we antagonize. "Handle with gloves," and be sure the gloves are of velvet. When, under the auspices of public high schools, rank hoodlumism is permitted in local secret societies, is it not time to call a halt? Parents, teachers and the better class of pupils should rise in open revolt. But is this done? If mild and reasonable methods will not succeed, why cringe from the drastic and the effective? Dean Stephen I. Miller, of the University of Washington, declared at a club dinner in Spokane as follows: "Of the 2,700 freshmen who applied for admission to the University of Washington last year (1920) 50 per cent. were sent back to their homes because they lacked the vital qualification of discipline and the concentration that comes from it. * * * Of the 1,350 who remained, 50 per cent. will have dropped out before graduation." This statement is appalling.

Supervision of the work of teachers we must have. But are teachers hampered by too much supervision? Is independent action an unknown quantity in the make-up of the teacher? Does any unyielding regime fit every individual case or combination of circumstances?

Departmental work is one of the comparatively new departures. Inasmuch as it makes each teacher a specialist in a certain line, it is to a degree helpful. But carried to excess, as the tendency is, it is by no means an unmixed blessing. There are too many cross-purposes, too little continuity of moral effort and influence. The teachers themselves grow narrow and mechanical.

The aim of the public school of yesterday was intellectual. To know was the incentive to supreme effort. Today we have the triple purpose—intellectual, utilitarian, emotional, with an ever increasing preponderance of the emotional. To know and to do are active educational factors; to enjoy is passive and receptive. What new spur shall be buckled to the heel of the future? Where is the prophet who can outline the work of tomorrow? No teacher now on the force dares to hope aloud that it will be along saner and less elaborate lines. That is to be guilty of professional disloyalty and rank heresy.

For one thing, may it be the day when no one shall enter the ranks for the mere purpose —*for the mere purpose* of paying an overdue college debt, or providing a "hope chest" and wedding trousseau. And then, it will be ideal that for half the year the subject of reappointment shall not hang over the head of a successful teacher like the sword of Damocles suspended by a single hair. The feeling that each act and motive is the subject of discussion, or dissection by those who know nothing about the controlling circumstances makes it a Herculean task not to be a fawning hypocrite, a trembling coward, or a defiant rebel.

And it is to be hoped the day is not far distant when, in all our public schools, our teachers shall receive an adequate salary for adequate work—as much, for instance, as a stenographer, a janitor, a stone-mason, or a mule-driver; and, also, when this salary shall be paid for twelve months in the year. This step would go far to induce brainy, capable men and women to make the work of the teacher really professional.

May we prophesy that in time to come, some device will succeed in placing teachers who have made teaching a life work where they shall never face an old age of poverty and neglect.

And again, half the teachers in our higher grades should be *men*. We need men. "The percentage of men teachers in the United States has fallen from 43 per cent. in 1880 to 20 per cent. in 1916, and 16 per cent. in 1918."

In those better days our text books shall no longer be the work of theorists, but the evolution of ideas wrought out by actual experience in the school room. Then our boys and girls shall be required to take the printed page, and interpret its meanings without elaboration by the teacher. A good reader is half educated.

Our high school boys shall be sought by higher institutions more for their intellectual calibre than for their achievements on the gridiron. Mental activities shall outweigh

physical and social attainments. Less stress shall be laid upon *having a good time*, and more upon *doing and being something worth while*.

And there shall be less grasping after the almighty dollar on side lines to provide luxurious appointments, or to sustain expensive activities—when public schools shall no longer be like the leech's daughter, crying, "Give, give, give!" till they are not *free* schools, but institutions for the rich and open-handed.

Another question arises here which has a far-reaching significance inasmuch as it touches the home life of the future. It is this: Are our public schools developing tastes and desires that will militate against contented happiness in the homes and with the limited incomes of the average American citizen? Is there a lowering of ideals? Does a desire for display overwhelm the refinements of cultural opportunities and attainments? When a little girl in Spokane upon leaving the eighth grade asked for a piece of jewelry, and was offered a set of books instead, she replied, "O, papa, you are *prehistoric*." Countless similar incidents illustrate the point in view. Are our schools cultivating tastes for debilitating social amusements—moving pictures, theaters, the whirl of the dance, the rush of the automobile, the extravagance of expensive and unbecoming fashionable attire and undue familiarity between the sexes? When Greece and Rome plunged into the vortex of excessive indulgence —you know the sequel.

What Dr. Pemrose, of Whitman, has said upon college attendance should in the future apply with still greater force to the American public high schools. They should no longer be drag-nets clogged with flotsam and jetsam of no educational purpose, receiving only "what is forced upon them." "Overcrowded, they have become hot-beds for the cultivation of social life, not for the acquisition of knowledge." We should like to predict that a development of the English college idea, may in a modified degree mark the public school system of tomorrow. Oxford and Cambridge are collections of small colleges, each with its own student body. There are 23 colleges at Oxford, and the attendance is limited, ranging from 100 to 400. The English idea is "education by personal contact," and this is secured by close daily association of student with student; and yet more by the tutorial system whereby a number of boys are under the care and direction of a number of the faculty whose business it is to make real students of them. Smaller buildings, smaller classes, will render possible more intimate personal relationships and a clearer mutual understanding between pupil and teacher. God speed the day when in our high schools, "groups of students, associated daily with inspiring personalities," shall receive a vastly superior education to that "which is now sprinkled upon the multitude." In American education of the future, the question of supreme importance will be—"How many individuals can a teacher genuinely instruct and inspire?"—Not how many can be summon to roll call?

When I wrote out the preceding statement I was almost frightened at the suggestion it contained that some should be denied the privilege of our higher public schools. But upon consideration, I concluded to let it stand. I can never forget the time worse than wasted spent in trying to cram some mental pabulum down the intellectual throats of sulky, inattentive boys and giggling girls, who cared for nothing beyond foot ball, dancing and a good time generally. I afterwards found, and cannot refrain from quoting the words of Charles H. Judd, director of education in the University of Chicago, in his report on educational subjects to the department at Washington, D. C. He says: "I am in favor of one kind of curtailment in schools. I advocate the withdrawal of opportunities from those who, after reasonable trial to allow for the immaturities of youth, so grossly neglect their own interests and their work that they waste American opportunities and resources." Should this pruning be done, it would be of incalculable benefit to the public purse, to the individual, and to the whole. What is to be done with the rejected ones is "another story." This done, we should be surprised at the number of teachers of Dr. Arnold's exalted ideals and influence that have been hidden under a mound of precedent, red tape, and parsimony. Then our

teachers from our unrivaled normal schools would have the opportunity to mould the welfare of the nation.

Sara F. Archer
Spokane, Washington

DISCUSSION

WHAT KIND OF A CRIPPLE SHALL I BE?

Recently I received a letter from Oregon enclosing two newspaper clippings, with the question, "Which is right?" The first newspaper extract is as follows:

MAKE EDUCATION PRACTICAL

Believing that the school should always keep in close touch with home life, and bring into its work such material as will make the work of the school real, and that the teaching should be based upon the life experience of the child, the school has brought into use many educational pamphlets and bulletins which assist materially in vitalizing home life and making the work of the school real.

If the home is the fundamental institute of civilization (and no one will refute that), the school should be looked upon as the supplement to the home and give the children the training that the home cannot give. Since we should provide the forms of education which the children crave and furnish to each one the line of study to which he or she is adapted, the use of various publications and bulletins assists materially in offering to the child the material in which he is interested.

Many bulletins, suitable for all the grades, treating of the subjects of agriculture, dairying, horticulture, etc., are read eagerly by the children and, in this way, assistance is given that will help to equip them for a life work and enable them to get the best out of their lives and to enrich the community in which they abide.

Through the courtesy of the International Harvester Company of Chicago many educational bulletins and fine charts are loaned to the school and this agency with the cooperation of the Extension Department of the Oregon Agricultural College, is destined to create an interest in the rising generation.

The second extract presents a different view. It follows:

TOO MUCH MATERIALISM

Discussing in one of the magazines the everlasting questions of "What's wrong with our schools," the writer says:

"We have suffered our public schools to become the spoils of materialists. We have allowed ourselves to be persuaded that the important thing is to obtain a living rather than how to live. And the cream of the jest is that the exponents of vocational training are defeating their own purposes because they will not see that even material success depends not so much upon mechanical efficiency as upon personality, imagination, knowledge of men and women and of the economic forces which play upon one's business."

There is certainly a good deal in this view. The vocational training people tend to go too far in the public schools, as the technical training people in the universities. "The life is more than meat and the body than raiment," and no system of education will ever really succeed unless it acknowledges this truth. Even for practical purposes, as the writer suggests, it is a mistake to confine teaching to the purely practical. The idea, the cultural, the stuff concerned with the refinement of life and the elevation of taste and purpose, is needed to stimulate the life forces which are all back of achievement, and to give point and purpose to human effort.

In reply to this inquiry I wrote the following letter:

My dear Mr. ————:

I am returning your clippings.

Which is better, to have one's legs cut off and keep his arms, or to have one's arms cut off and keep his legs?

If we were all condemned to go through life as cripples and had to choose between arms and legs, that would be a very vital question. But most of us have the privilege of retaining both arms and legs, and so the question has no live interest for us.

Fortunately we do not have to decide whether we shall be educated to make a living without knowing how to live, or learn how to live without being able to make a living. We are not condemned to be either spiritual or economic cripples, and I am not interested in the dispute as to which is worse.

We must all make our living (or live as social parasites on whoever makes our living for us) and we all must live our lives. A sound educational program will prepare us for both, and will keep such a perspective and proportion that neither interest is unduly sacrificed to the other. To get that sense of perspective and proportion, and to make it dictate the

of our education, is our prime educational evil. Antioch College, here at Yellow Springs, Ohio, is committed to furnishing a well proportioned educational program which will turn out men and women fitted to live full and effective lives both culturally and economically.

Sometimes I feel that we need to be saved from our friends who insist on presenting only one phase of our program, because that is the phase which happens to appeal to them.

ARTHUR E. MORGAN

ANTIOCH COLLEGE

EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND STATISTICS

EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY IN NORMAL SCHOOLS

EDUCATIONAL sociology is the title of a course that is being offered in some universities and in many teachers' colleges and normal schools. In others such a course is not offered this year, but it will be given next year. However, some educators have raised a question concerning the existence of such a subject.

One man who is teaching courses in education said in reply to the questionnaire that he did not think it proper to speak of educational sociology as a separate subject of study. He said, "This is a pedagogical absurdity and temporary fad. Such hybrid courses are wasteful and confusing."

There are some good reasons why educational sociology is not recognized by every one as a separate subject. First, it is a new subject. In 1892, Dr. W. T. Harris, United States commissioner of education wrote[1], "But no philosophy of education is fundamental until it is based upon sociology—not on physiology, not even on psychology, but on sociology." This was only 30 years ago.

In 1908, President Suzzalo, then a member of the faculty at Columbia University, said, "As we have a school hygiene and an educational psychology, so we must have what is basic, an educational sociology." He began to give courses in educational sociology that year.

Professor Ellwood, of the University of Missouri, was the first sociologist to make a definite appeal for an educational sociology. In 1912 he declared that there are two chief problems in science of education, viz., the aim of education and the problem of organizing a curriculum which shall be in harmony with that aim. He also declared that both of these problems are essentially problems in an applied sociology, and the science of education, as far as these problems in education are concerned, is an applied science resting on sociology.

Second, many colleges and normal schools are not offering courses in educational sociology. This, however, does not prove that it does not exist. Social psychology, social pathology, constructive philanthrophy, rural sociology and institutional sociology came into existence about 1900 and these subjects are not studied in all institutions to-day. In 1902 Professor Lester F. Ward wrote[2], "I do not claim that sociology has as yet been established as a science. I maintain that it is in process of establishment and this by the same method by which all other sciences are established." He also said, "The progress of science is no even, straight-forward march." These statements apply to educational sociology to-day.

Third, educational sociology has too often been taught by men who are not well-trained sociologists. They do not have the proper sociological background and the course that is given by them is poorly organized. Of course, a new subject isn't organized in a day, and it will be years before there is agreement as to what shall be included in it. However, it will be established more qxiekly if instructors who are adequately trained in sociology give earnest attention to it.

Fourth, some educators have raised objections to calling it educational sociology. Dr. Snedden says[3], "Educational sociology has its analogues in educational psychology, engineer-

[1] Smith, W. R., *American Journal of Sociology*, XXII, pp. 761 ff.

[2] Ward, Lester F., *Pure Sociology*, p. 8.

[3] Snedden, David, *A Digest and Syllabus of Educational Sociology*, Part I, pp. 2-4.

ing mathematics, agricultural chemistry, medical biology, navigational astronomy, architectural drawing, mining geology, etc." In each case a body of "pure" knowledge is drawn upon for particular contributions to a field of practical effort or "applied science."

The functions of educational sociology may be stated so that every one can see what is being attempted by those who are its champions. A minor field of usefulness for educational sociology is its explanation of the social life of children, their sports, cliques and submission to authority. This would be a great help to teachers and supervisors in problems of school management and in making courses of study. It would also help in coordinating the work of the home and shop with the school.

The chief field of usefulness, however, is found in the contribution to the evaluation of educational goals, aims and purposes. It should aid in determining the methods and means to be used in realizing these goals, aims and purposes, and in deciding the ultimate efficiency of these means and ends. Professor Finney[4] has emphasized the need for a successful manipulation of the social forces if mankind is speedily to attain the rank of the higher culture level. This manipulation of the social forces can be better accomplished by having a knowledge of the social sciences.

The argument may be advanced that the principles of sociology are not sufficiently well established to furnish a basis for educational sociology. If rigid scientific standards are applied this is probably true. However, "no science was ever born full-grown" and the sciences have not waited until maturity before they began to be applied to practical problems.

I. Opinions of state superintendents of public instruction concerning educational sociology.

1. Questionnaires were sent to 16 state superintendents of public instruction; eight replied. Those who answered the questions were generally of the opinion that students taking a two-year course in a normal school ought to take a course in sociology.

[4] Finney, Ross L., *Educational Review*, Vol. 56, pp. 305 ff.

Time given to sociology 2 years normal course	Number of answers
5 hours, one semester	1
4 hours, one semester	1
3 hours, one semester	4
2 hours, two semesters	1
No time in this course	1

There was general agreement that sociology should be studied by those who take a four-year course as a preparation for teaching. The superintendent who thought sociology unnecessary for those taking the two-year course advocated two three-hour courses for those who take the longer course.

2. Time given to sociology in four-year course for teachers.

Time given by students taking four year course	Number of answers
5 hours, two semesters	1
4 hours, one semester	1
3 hours, two semesters	4
3 hours, three semesters	1
Elective	1

3. The answers to the question concerning a choice between courses in general sociology and educational sociology for prospective teachers were largely favorable to educational sociology. Seven said it should be studied and one said general sociology should be required.

4. The objectives in educational sociology were stated in different terms, but in meaning there was considerable agreement. The answers may be included under the following statements: "To apply principles of sociology in the field of education; to give prospective teachers an understanding of social efficiency and also of educational functions of various groups; the development of a sound social consciousness."

One superintendent stated that he thought a two, three or four-hour course in rural sociology should be required of all those who expect to teach in rural schools.

The state superintendents are in favor of sociology as a part of the training of those who expect to teach. The normal schools, therefore, may proceed to add courses in sociology and feel that they have the support of the head of the public school system in the state. Those

who are chosen as instructors for these courses should know the fundamental principles of sociology and also know the essential facts about the public school system.

II. Replies from instructors in social sciences in normal schools.

Letters were written to 35 teachers of social science in normal schools. The replies to the letters came from 24 institutions in 16 states, from Maine to California.

1. Many normal schools are not giving courses in educational sociology, but most of the institutions where it is not taught are giving courses in general sociology. The one part of the country in which sociology is not getting much recognition is New England and New York. Normal schools in Maine, Massachusetts, Connecticut and New York are not giving courses in sociology this year. It may be that some are giving such courses but those answering the questionnaires are not.

2. The course in educational sociology is given in the sophomore year in some institutions, in the junior year in others, and in the senior year in others. Where it is given it is usually required.

3. The texts most in use are Clow, *Principles of Educational Sociology*, and Smith, *An Introduction to Educational Sociology*.

4. The number of courses in sociology given in the normal schools varied from none to six. Only one gave six courses and one gave five courses. The usual number of courses is one or two. The course usually given is known as general sociology or beginning sociology. In a few institutions, rural sociology is given for teachers who expect to locate in rural communities.

Social psychology is offered in only two of the institutions that replied to the letter sent out. More emphasis should be placed on this subject in the training of all teachers and also of those who expect to be supervisors.

5. There is a wide variety in texts used in general sociology, but those by Blackmar and Gillen, Ellwood, Hayes, Park and Burgess, and Ross are the ones most used.

Remarks concerning sociology in normal schools.

1. Sociology should have a place in the curriculum as a required subject for those expecting to teach. Professor Ellwood says, "We are now beginning to perceive that the individual should be fitted by the school to function efficiently and dynamically in every social group, from the family and the local community to the nation and the great community of humanity." Therefore, teachers must be trained in "the scientific study of society."

2. A course in sociology requiring five hours a week for three quarters should be given in all normal schools. The first quarter should be devoted to general sociology with considerable attention given to social psychology. The second quarter should be given to educational sociology for the same number of hours and rural sociology should be given in the third quarter.

3. In connection with the course in educational sociology or in general sociology attention should be given to methods of making surveys. This is a subject that should be studied by all prospective teachers. A separate course, known as social surveys, should be offered as an elective course.

4. Other elective courses should be offered.

III. Opinions of college professors who are teaching sociology or in departments of education.

Letters were written to 35 teachers of sociology or teachers in departments of education in prominent universities and teachers colleges; 24 replies were received.

1. There was a wide diversity of opinion concerning the number of courses in sociology and its applications to educational problems that should be taken by candidates for the bachelor of education degree. They varied from one answer that sociology should not be given as a professional course to another that it should be given as a three-hour course in each of four semesters.

Two of those answering were of the opinion that as much time should be given to sociology as is given to psychology. One well-known professor would not have any sociology courses required, but would make them all elective. Another professor, equally well-known, would

require a course in social psychology, one in general sociology, and one in educational sociology, making a total of nine or ten hours of work. Another suggestion is to require introduction to sociology in the sophomore year, one semester of social psychology and one of social problems in the junior year, and one semester of educational sociology in the senior year.

One suggestion that needs to be noticed is that a year's work in sociology should be required of all students and a semester course in criminology should be especially arranged for those who expect to be school supervisors.

2. The answers to the question concerning the objective in educational sociology vary considerably. Some of the answers are stated in very general terms. The following are a few which will give an idea of the general tenor of them: "Ability to teach and manage schools in the public interest"; "to develop and evaluate our courses and subjects in the light of objectives fixed by the needs of a developing society." One instructor in a college of education says, "Educational sociology should prepare a teacher to be a practical leader in her school and in the community," while another says, "Educational sociology should, in my estimation, be considered a professional study, primarily for persons expected to assume administrative responsibility in determining courses of study, developing new types of schools, and the like."

Professor Ellwood has written[5], "Linguistic, intellectual, and vocational training are of course necessary auxiliaries, but good citizenship is the end of education, and therefore social studies are central in democratized education."

Professor Finney has stated his belief that liberal, practical, universal education will be a safe solvent of the social injustice and class exploitation that exists in American society. How can teachers direct such education if they have not studied "the science of the origin, development, structure, and functioning of social groups" and have some definite ideas about the objectives for the different subjects in the course of study?

3. The last question was about the content of the course in educational sociology. Should it be the application of the principles of sociology to educational problems, or should it consist of the presentation of the social point of view concerning educational problems?

There were 19 who answered this question. Seven said it should be the application of principles of sociology to educational problems, three said it should be the presentation of the social point of view concerning educational problems, seven said it should be both, and two said it should be neither. One of those in the last-named group said it should be "Sociology within and from the school situation." The other professor in this group would not have educational sociology in the course of study, but have three hours of general sociology.

IV. Conclusions as to position of college professors with reference to educational sociology.

1. There is almost general agreement that those expecting to teach should have one good course in general sociology, at least, but some of them do not think educational sociology is well-established and doubt the advisability of giving a place to it in the list of professional courses that prospective teachers should take.

2. It seems that there is a growing opinion that sociology should be given a larger place in the training of teachers. A prominent professor and writer on social science says, "Perhaps one fourth of the course should be given to psychology; one fourth to technique; one fourth to practice work; and one fourth to sociology."

3. There is need for some research work with respect to many educational problems. Such problems as the cooperation of the home and school, the effect of frequent changes in the school attended upon the education of the child, the relation of the public to school administration, and the adaptation of the schools to the needs of the masses are problems which must be solved by the sociologist if solved with the greatest intelligence.

L. O. LANTIS
UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

[5] Ellwood, C. A., *Teachers College Record*, May, 1921, pp. 226 ff.